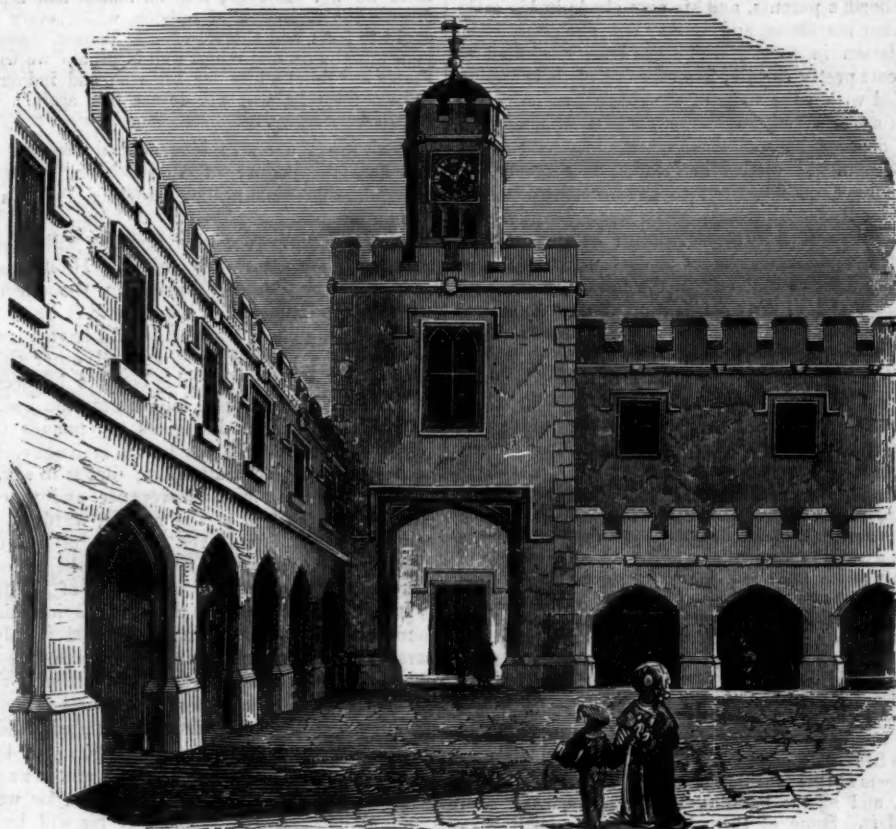




HISTORICAL NOTICE OF RUGBY SCHOOL. I.



ENTRANCE TO THE HALL AND PART OF THE QUADRANGLE.

THERE is perhaps no feeling which reflects so much credit upon its possessor, as that pure and practical charity which in all ages, and especially after the Reformation, induced men to appropriate part of their wealth to the foundation of establishments for gratuitous education, and there is something elevating and noble in the principle which caused many of them to bestow those benefits upon the places of their nativity, rather than upon those where their possessions were acquired. Until the middle of the sixteenth century, the Church was generally the object of testators' attention, though even in that dark period, literature was frequently remembered. When, however, the mind became rescued from the trammels of superstition, those sums which, but a few years before, would in all probability have been bequeathed for the performance of masses, the support of priests, or for the purchase of articles for the service of the altar, were appropriated to far more useful purposes.*

The same objects—the honour and worship of God—were still aimed at, but in a more reasonable manner. The extension of religious knowledge among the young, and their acquirement of various sorts of useful information came to be desired by benevolent individuals, and inculcated by the respective founders of schools.

To rational piety and well-directed philanthropy, Rugby is indebted for that splendid establishment which

* *History of the Town and School of Rugby*; By NICHOLAS HARRIS NICOLAS, Esq., F.S.A.

has conferred so much celebrity upon its name. The town of Rugby is situate near the eastern border of the county of Warwick, and is written *Rocheberie* in Domesday Book, so called, according to Dugdale, from *roach*, a rock or quarry of stone, and *berie*, a court or habitation: but, according to another authority, the derivation is Celtic, from *rue* a river and *bye* a town. Either derivation will suit the local circumstances of the place, for there is a quarry of stone in the neighbourhood, and the river Avon is not far from the town.

Rugby is seated on a beautiful eminence and has a cheerful appearance. Until the foundation of the celebrated school it possessed but slight claims to notice; and although in the thirteenth century it obtained a grant of a weekly market and an annual fair, yet for nearly three hundred years it remained in comparative obscurity. Nor in that long period does it seem to have been once the scene of any event of historical interest, to have given birth to a single individual who became distinguished by his talents or conduct, or to have partaken in the least degree of the advantages which numerous towns, of equal original insignificance, have derived from industry and commerce.

Of the founder of Rugby school little more is known than that his name was LAWRENCE SHERIFF, of the

city of London, grocer. He appears to have been a member of the Grocers' Company, from his great partiality for their arms, which he has ordered on several occasions to accompany the initials of his name. He has been spoken of as a native of Brownsover, and of low origin, but probabilities are in favour of his having been born at Rugby, and of respectable parents. He died possessed of a handsome house at Rugby, which he assigned to the use of his schoolmaster. This house, in its day, must have been one of the first in the town, being a capacious mansion, with an arched porch over its chief entrance. It is imagined that it was the dwelling-place of Sheriff's parents, and his own abode in his early years. That his father and mother did not occupy the inferior station in society which has been attributed to them, appears pretty certain, from the fact of their having been buried within the walls of the church, a distinction which was never permitted but to persons of some property and consequence.

When Sheriff was settled in London as a grocer, he appears to have quickly risen to some consequence in his particular line of business, as he was appointed one of the tradesmen of the Royal Family: he appears also to have had some employment about the court; or, at least we may infer as much from the following anecdote of him, preserved in Fox's *Book of Martyrs*, which, being the only historical notice as yet discovered relating to the founder of Rugby School, and being moreover very characteristic of the times in which he lived, we quote entire. Fox introduces this narrative in order to "show forth the malicious hearts of the papists towards this virtuous queen, our Sovereign Lady, in the time of Queen Mary, her sister."

Soon after the stir of Wyatt, and the troubles that happened to Queen Mary for that cause, it fortune'd one Robert Farrer, a haberdasher of London, dwelling near to Newgate Market, in a certain morning to be at the Rose Tavern (from whence he was seldom absent), and falling to his common drink, as he was ever accustomed, and having in his company three other companions like himself, it chanced the same time one Lawrence Sheriff, grocer, dwelling also not far from thence, to come into the said tavern, and finding there the said Farrer, (to whom of long time he had borne good-will), sat down in the seat to drink with him. And Farrer, being in his full cups, and not having consideration who were present, began to talk at large, and, namely against the Lady Elizabeth, and said that Jill had been one of the chief doers of this rebellion of Wyatt, and before all he done, she, and all the heretics, her partakers, shall well understand it. Some of them hope that she shall have the crown, but she, and they, I trust, that so hope, shall hop headless, or be fried with faggots, before she come to it. The aforesaid Lawrence Sheriff, grocer, being then servant to the Lady Elizabeth, and sworn unto her grace, could no longer forbear his old acquaintance and neighbour Farrer, in speaking irreverently of his mistress, but said unto him, "Farrer, I have loved thee as a neighbour, and have had a good opinion of thee, but hearing of thee that I now hear, I defy thee, and tell thee, I am her grace's sworn servant, and she is a princess, and the daughter of a noble king, and it evil becometh thee to call her a Jill. For thy so saying, I say thou art a knave, and I will complain on thee."—"Do thy worst," said Farrer, "for that I said I will say again:" and so Sheriff came from his company.

Shortly after, the said Sheriff, taking an honest neighbour with him, went before the commissioners to complain. The which commissioners sat at Bonner's the Bishop of London's house beside St. Paul's, and there were present, Bonner, then being chief commissioner, the Lord Mordaunt, Sir John Baker, Dr. Darbyshire, Chancellor to the bishop, Dr. Story, Dr. Harpfield, and others.

The aforesaid Sheriff, coming before them, declared the manner of the said Farrer's talk, against the Lady Elizabeth. Bonner answered, "Peradventure you took him worse than he meant."—"Yes, my lord," (said Dr. Story,) "if you knew the man as I do you would say there is not a better Catholic, nor an honest man, in the city of London."

"Well," said Sheriff, "my lord, she is my gracious lady and mistress, and it shall not be suffered, that such a varlet, as he is, should call so honourable a princess by the name of

a Jill. And I saw yesterday in the court, that my Lord Cardinal Pole, meeting her in her chamber of presence, kneeled down on his knees, and kissed her hand. And I also saw, that King Philip, meeting her, made her like obedience, and that his knee touched the ground. And then me-thinketh it were too much to suffer such a varlet, as he is, to call her a Jill, and to wish them to hop headless that shall wish Her Grace to enjoy the possession of the crown, when God shall send it to her as in the right of her inheritance." "Yea, stay there," quoth Bonner; "when God sendeth it unto her, let her enjoy it. But truly," said he, "the man that spake the words you have reported, meant nothing against the Lady Elizabeth, your mistress, and no more do we. But he, like an honest and zealous man, feareth the alteration of religion, which every good man ought to fear: and therefore," said Bonner, "good man, go your ways home, and report well of us, and we will send for Farrer and rebuke him for his rash and indiscreet words, and we trust he will not do the like again." And thus Sheriff came away.

Such are the scanty biographical remains of a man to whom the county of Warwick in particular, and the public in general, are indebted for this splendid foundation.

We come now to notice Sheriff's will, some of the items of which are rather curious. He desires that his body may be decently buried in the church of St. Andrew's in Rugby, but the funeral to be first done in the city of London, whereat he will have a learned man to preach the word of God, and all other things meet to be done; and after that his body to be decently carried to Rugby, and there buried near the bodies of his father and mother. He gives ten pounds to be distributed on the day of his burial in Rugby, to all the poor people that shall attend it; that is to say, to every poor man and woman twelpence, and to every poor child twopence; and to the master, wardens, and company of grocers he leaves the sum of 13*l.* 6*s.* 8*d.*, of which sum he wills, that 6*l.* 13*s.* 4*d.* be bestowed on a recreation of the company on the day of his burial.

It appears to have been the original intention of the founder of this school to have endowed it only with his parsonage of Brownsover and his mansion-house in Rugby, adding fifty pounds towards the erection of the school; but from some cause now unknown he increased his donation with the third part of his estate in Middlesex,—the great cause of the present prosperity of the school. His will bears date 22nd July, 1567, and it was probably made in London. But within less than six weeks he is found at Rugby revoking parts of his will by a codicil, dated 31st August of the same year, and adding this most important bequest to the same trusts and uses as he had before by deed settled his parsonage of Brownsover and his mansion in Rugby.

This act being done at Rugby so soon after his disposal of his affairs, makes it probable, (says Aekerman,) that some offence received, in the course of his visit, from his relations, who would not be much disposed to approve his leaving his house and land from them, for what they might consider as such romantic purposes, might be the occasion of this great alteration in favour of his charity: great, indeed, it was not at that time, for it was the gift of no more than a third part of twenty-four acres of land; but the particular situation of those few acres has since made them immensely valuable.

At the time of the founder's decease the rent of those ten acres was not more than ten pounds a year. A few years ago the rental was estimated at many thousand pounds. By an inquisition taken soon after Lawrence Sheriff's death, it appears that he died in London, on the 20th of October, 1567.

The benevolent intentions of the founder do not appear to have been scrupulously fulfilled by those in whom he placed confidence. Of the two trustees of his will, Harrison died soon after him, leaving Field the surviving trustee, who thought proper to retain, for his own benefit, the third part of Conduit Close, which had been devised for the maintenance of the school; and it continued in a state of alienation for many years. Several

suits were ineffectually instituted; by different masters of the school, for the recovery of it; until, in consequence of the act of the 43rd of Queen Elizabeth, to redress the misapplication of funds given to charitable uses, a commission was issued in Middlesex, in the 12th of King James I. 1614, and an inquisition taken at Hicks's Hall, before the Bishop of London, Sir Henry Montague, and others, the result of which was a report to the Chancellor in favour of the charity, and a restoration to the school of that part of the Conduit Close originally conveyed to Harrison and Field, with all arrears. At the same time twelve trustees of the most respectable gentlemen of the county and neighbourhood were appointed for the better securing of the same, and the application of it to the uses intended.

The strong arm of the law was also required to secure to the uses of the charity the property in Rugby and Brownsover. By an inquisition taken at Rugby, in April, 1653, the possession of the property was found to have been *usurped*, and it was ordered that payment of arrears and of sums which had been withholden, should be made to the trustees, to be applied, first, to the indemnification of those who had been injured by the usurpation in question, and then to the repairs of the school-house, alms-houses, and premises. It was likewise provided by this inquisition, that the trustees should hold four meetings at Rugby in every year, and that out of the rents and profits they should take to themselves, for their entertainment at those meetings, a sum not exceeding twenty shillings per annum.

The Middlesex estate, at the time it was bequeathed, consisted of the Conduit Close, and pasture-land, (on which Lamb's Conduit Street and the adjoining streets now stand,) lying nearly half a mile from any of the houses in the city then in being. There was not at that time much reason to suppose that the Conduit Close would ever form part of the metropolis, and shortly after the date of the bequest, viz., in the thirty-fifth year of Queen Elizabeth, an Act of Parliament was passed, forbidding the erection of any houses within three miles of London and Westminster. So also when James I. came to the throne, a proclamation was issued, strictly prohibiting all persons from building on new foundations within the walls, and within three miles of the city gates, on penalty of having all such houses destroyed. Other proclamations to the same effect appeared from time to time, probably under the idea that the frequent return of the plague was occasioned by the already too great population of the city. But as time passed on, these prohibitive laws and proclamations were forgotten, and many acres of land adjoining the city were gradually covered with houses. Accordingly, in 1686, we find the Conduit Close described as an inclosed ground, let to one Nicholas Barbon, doctor in physic, on a building-lease for fifty years, at the annual rent of 50*l*. When sixteen years of this lease had expired, Sir William Mildman, knight, became entitled to the premises for the remainder of the term, and agreed with the trustees for a further term of forty-three years after the expiration of the previous term.

In the year 1748 the clear yearly produce of all the property belonging to this charity did not amount to more than 116*l*. 17*s*. 6*d*.; of which 63*l*. 6*s*. 8*d*. was appropriated to the master's salary, and the remainder to the relief and clothing of the four almsmen, and the repairing of the school, mansion-house, and other buildings belonging to the charity, as also the chancel of Brownsover.

CONTENT of mind, springing from innocence of life, from the faithful discharge of our duty, from satisfaction of conscience, from a good hope in regard to God and our future state, is much to be preferred before all the delights which any temporal possession or fruition can afford.—BARROW.

COMMERCIAL HISTORY OF CURRANTS AND RAISINS.

II.

HAVING in the former paper given a slight sketch of the cultivation and commercial history of the small dried grapes which are sold at grocers' shops under the name of *currants*, we will proceed to notice the larger kinds of dried grapes, generally known as *raisins* or *plums*.

There are many varieties of the raisin, produced from different species of vine. They derive their names from two circumstances, one relating to the country where they grow, and the other to the kind of grape of which they are made. Thus there are *Smyrnas*, *Valencias*, *Malagas*, &c., named after the districts which produce them; whereas the terms *muscatels*, *blooms*, *sultanas*, &c., are distinctive names for different species. Some terms, too, such as *jar-raisins*, *raisins of the sun*, relate to the mode in which they are dried, or packed for exportation.

One of the finest species of raisin is the Malaga, grown in Spain in the district of that name. When Laborde wrote, about the commencement of the present century, he estimated the exports of Malaga raisins at 240,000 cwts., valued at 625,000*l*. sterling. In 1829, M. Moreau de Jonnés, however, stated the value at a much lower amount. In 1834, the exports of raisins from Malaga consisted of nearly 280,000 boxes, and 160,000 barrels, one half of which were shipped for the United States, and one-sixth for England. Two-thirds of all the raisins brought into this country are imported from Spain.

The raisins exported from Malaga are of three kinds, *muscatels*, *blooms* or *raisins of the sun*, and *lexias*. As the Malaga raisins are deemed finer than any other, and muscatels are the finest of the Malagas, it may be supposed that they are deemed a choice and important fruit. The species of grape called the white muscat of Alexandria is that which produces the muscatels. The berries are large, oval, white, rather firm-fleshed, with a very rich and superior flavour. The names applied to the best varieties of raisin-grape in most countries, show how extensively the muscat species is cultivated for this purpose; for instance, there are the muscat of Jerusalem, the muscat of Malaga, the *passé-musquée*, the *passé-longue musquée*, and the muscat d'Espagne. In its preparation as a raisin or dried grape, no art is used: the fruit is merely placed in the sun, and frequently turned. There is a species of grape called the black muscat of Alexandria, and a red muscat or muscatel, both of which have a firmness of pulp sufficient to render them fit for drying; for grapes, however rich they may be, and excellent in a fresh state, yet if they do not possess a certain degree of firmness, are unfit for drying, inasmuch as their substance would be too much dissipated in the process. All muscatel raisins are exported from Malaga in boxes.

The *blooms*, or raisins of the sun, are rather a different species from the muscatel, but they are dried in a similar way, by the heat of the sun, and are exported from Spain in earthen jars. Different modes of drying are adopted, according to the quality of the grapes. The commonest kinds are placed in a heated oven, and there dried. The most simple, and when circumstances are favourable, the best mode of preparation, is that adopted in the case of muscatel and bloom raisins; in which the grapes are dried, after being cut when fully ripe, by exposure to the heat of the sun on a floor of hard earth or of stone. A third method is, to cut the stalk half-way through when the grapes are nearly ripe, and leave them suspended till the watery part is evaporated; the flow of sap is in a great measure prevented from entering the fruit, in consequence of the incision, and whilst evaporation continues to go on undiminished, desiccation must take place.

There is a curious mode of drying, adopted both at Malaga and Valencia, in the case of *lexias*, a kind of raisin which acquires that name from a ley or liquor in which the grapes are dipped. By this method, two or three bunches of grapes are tied firmly together, while yet on the vine, and dipped into a hot lixivium or ley of wood-ashes. This disposes the grapes to shrink and wrinkle: and after this they are left on the vine three or four days, separated on sticks in a horizontal direction, and then dried in the sun at leisure. A portion of olive oil is generally mingled with the ley, and the wood-ashes of which the ley itself is formed are those of vine branches and tendrils. In Valencia, the ashes are formed of rosemary branches combined with vine twigs, and a little slacked lime is sometimes added.

It might at first thought be supposed, that, provided the temperature be equalized, it would matter but little whether the raisins were dried by the heat of the sun, or by that of a stove. But this is not the case; those dried by the former method acquire a sweet and pleasant taste; but those dried by artificial heat retain a latent acidity with the sweetness, which renders them much less agreeable.

There is a kind called raisins of Damascus, named from the capital city of Syria, in the neighbourhood of which they are cultivated. They are much used in the composition of pitans, together with jujubes and dates. They are of a flattish shape, seeded, and nearly as large as the thumb; from which some conception may be formed of the extraordinary bulk of the grape when fresh: There have been instances known of bunches of these grapes weighing twenty-five pounds each. The flavour of the grape is faintish, and not very agreeable when taken alone.

The finest raisins, as we have already observed, are brought from Spain; but the next finest quality are brought from a very different quarter, viz., Smyrna, on the western coast of Asia Minor. It is stated by the agent of a commercial house at Smyrna, that dried fruit, comprising raisins and figs, occupy the attention of all Smyrna, more or less, and produce during the season great interest and activity. Figs are brought to market early in September, and raisins are ready for shipping early in October; the former are procurable only at Smyrna; the latter may be procured there also, but the shipments are generally made at Chesmé, Vourla, Carabourna, Usbeek, &c., from which ports the name of the raisin takes its origin. Large sums are frequently gained in fruit speculation; and when the demand in England is brisk, and the prices and quality good, it very seldom happens that any loss is sustained by the speculators. Some risk, however, is incurred, dependent on the damp or dry state of the raisins when shipped.

Mr. M'Farlane, when residing at Smyrna, gave a lively account of the traffic in figs and raisins at the ports of Smyrna and its neighbourhood. It does not fall within our plan to treat of figs in this place; but we must say a few words respecting their shipment from Smyrna, in order to understand the subsequent remarks concerning raisins. After speaking of the tormenting visitations of the mosquitoes, our traveller states that he found another annoyance at Smyrna almost as vexatious—this was the fig trade! This branch of commerce was then in full activity. The passenger could hardly stir in the streets for the long lines of camels loaded with figs; he could hardly move in the Marina for the drums of figs rolling to be shipped; and it was scarcely possible for one within doors to sleep after three o'clock in the morning, for the noise of the women and children employed in picking and packing figs. Figs were the subject of conversation among all classes—some sellers, some growers, some pickers and packers, some buyers, some shippers—all seemed to have some interest or other in the fig-trade.

When the traveller went from Smyrna to a small sea-

port town near it, called Chesmé, he met with another busy scene, which he thus describes:—

Driven from Smyrna by figs, I fell from Scylla on Charybdis*, at Chesmé: I found all the world engaged with raisins! There was scarcely room to land on the little quay, for the casks of fruit lying there for embarkation. The narrow streets were thronged with hamals, camels, mules, and asses, all carrying raisins; vast heaps of raisins were seen piled up in every magazine, and in the lower part of the wooden house where I was accommodated by the kindness of my friend Mr. W—, were regiments of casks and barrels, mountains of raisins, and about a hundred half-naked, bawling fellows, (Turks, Greeks, and Jews,) picking and packing raisins. If at Smyrna I had found every man's mind absorbed in sweetmeat, here it was worse. Chesmé has no other trade but these exports of raisins. The Franks go down there merely to ship the fruit; this they must do with the greatest expedition for the interest of the shippers.

Not only are the Smyrniotes active and bustling during this season; but even the indolent, slow-moving Turks seem to be affected with the raisin-fever at this period,—hurrying about in their papooshes in a manner seldom exhibited by them at any other period. The town of Chesmé owes its prosperity entirely to the exportation of raisins, which are grown in immense abundance in its neighbourhood, as may be well conceived from the fact that fourteen English vessels, three Austrian, and one American, took fruit (many of them, though large ships, whole cargoes,) during a few days that Mr. M'Farlane remained at Chesmé; and that with the exception of a small, fine species of raisins, called sultanas, which are shipped at Smyrna, nearly all the fruit that goes in England by the name of Smyrna raisins, is sent from Chesmé.

A word or two respecting the medicinal qualities of raisins. The chief employment of raisins in medicine is to flavour unpleasant mixtures, or for their demulcent properties. They partake in part of the quality of the grapes. Grapes, when fresh, are cooling, aperient, moderately nutritive, and demulcent: their use in the south of France is thought to contribute greatly to the amelioration which consumptive persons experience there, and in some instances their effect is so striking as to have given rise to the term "cure de raisins." The dried raisin is less acid, but more nourishing and more demulcent. It possesses all the soothing qualities of jujube, and is much lower in price. It may be easily made into a conserve, by removing the seeds, and beating the pulp into a thick mass. It has been recommended for persons with irritable throats, and a liability to winter coughs, that a portion of this conserve be put into the mouth before going into the open air: this is said to be an excellent protective measure, by which cough is frequently prevented. If used in large quantity, raisins are apt to produce unfavourable effects on the system, since they are very subject to fermentation with juices of any kind. Dried currants contain more acid than raisins, and are therefore used medicinally under different circumstances.

But the medicinal employment of these dried fruits is very limited. Nearly the whole of the four hundred thousand hundredweights (raisins and currants together), consumed yearly in this country, are used in making puddings, pastry, wines, &c.

* "Fall from Scylla on Charybdis."—This expression is so often used by writers, that unless its origin be borne in mind, it would necessarily seem to the reader a useless introduction of hard words. Scylla is the name of a rock, situated in the Straits of Messina, which separate Sicily from the mainland of Italy. Charybdis is the name of a whirlpool, situated not very far from Scylla; and the ancient navigators found it extremely difficult to effect a passage between these obstacles; for in avoiding the rock, they were likely to be engulfed in the whirlpool. Thus it has come to be a sort of proverb, that when a person plunges into one misfortune or inconvenience in endeavouring to escape from another, he is said to "fall into Charybdis in avoiding Scylla."

EASY LESSONS IN CHESS.

LESSON II.

You must now learn the moves of the pieces and pawns; for which purpose, place your board in the proper position, which, you know, is with a white square at your right hand corner, and then place the king's rook on its square, the rest of the board being unoccupied. The move of the rook is always in straight lines, parallel with the sides of the board. In its present position this piece can be played to your adversary's king's rook's square, which square you know is the same as your K. R. 8th, or it may be played to your Q. R. square, from thence to Q. R. 8th square, thence to K. R. 8th, and so home again, thus taking four moves to go along all four sides of the board. The rook may also take a short as well as a long move. Its shortest move is one square forwards or backwards, or one square to the right, or one square to the left. In its present position it can neither move backwards nor to the right, because it is at home; and so also the queen's rook, when at home, can neither move backwards nor to the left: but place either rook on any but a rook's file, and you will find that it can move in three different directions: place K. R. on K. square, and you will find that it commands four squares to the left, three squares to the right, and all the seven squares in the king's file. Still in this position the rook cannot move backwards. But place K. R. on Q. 4th square, and you will find that it can now move backwards, but although it can move in four different directions, it does not command a larger number of squares than before. Remember that a piece is said to command a certain number of squares only when they are unoccupied. If, for example, your K. R. pawn be at K. R. 2nd square, the rook has no power whatever in a forward direction, but only to the left, where it commands seven squares; but if we place the K. Kt. at its square, the K. R. has no power whatever to move, and commands nothing. Remember also that a piece does not command or defend the square on which it actually stands, but only those squares to which it can be moved.

Your board being again unoccupied, place the king's bishop and the queen's bishop on their respective squares. The move of the bishop is always diagonal or oblique. Your king's bishop being on a white square, must always remain on that colour, because it cannot by any oblique move pass to a black square. The queen's bishop is on a black square, and remains on that colour during the whole of the game. Play your K. B. to K. R. 3rd, thence to your Q. B. 8th, thence to your Q. R. 6th, and thence home again. So also play your Q. B. to Q. R. 3rd, thence to your adversary's K. B., thence to your K. R. 6th, and thence home again. Play your K. B. to K. Kt. 2nd, thence to K. R. square, thence to your adversary's Q. R. This last move is the longest stride the bishop can take. Perform a similar exercise with your Q. B.

When the two bishops are at home, they each command seven squares. But play K. B. to Q. B. 4th square, or Q. B. to K. B. 4th square, and you will find their power to be greatly increased, each bishop commanding eleven squares. The bishop has the same privilege as the rook of moving through many squares or few, or of moving only one square.

Now as we are strongly inclined to the opinion that the moves of the pieces at chess originated from two ancient games*, in one of which the men were played as we now play the rook, and in the other the moves were similar to those of our bishop, and that by a combination of the powers of these two pieces, the moves of the other pieces derive their origin, we have thought that a better understanding of the moves in the modern game might be had by first describing the

powers of the rook and bishop, and then tracing to them the moves of the other pieces.

The king is allowed the shortest move of the rook and the shortest move of the bishop, but not both at once. Place your king on his square; he can then move to any one of the following squares: K. B. square, Q. square, K. 2nd square, Q. 2nd square, K. B. 2nd square. But if we place the king on one of the central squares, his power to move is increased. Place your K. on his fourth square; he then commands K. 3rd and 5th squares, Q. 3rd 4th and 5th squares, and K. B. 3rd 4th and 5th squares. Remember that your king can never be on a square immediately adjoining that on which your adversary's king stands.

The queen is allowed the move either of the rook or of the bishop, but not both at once. Place your queen on her square; she can move four squares to the right, three squares to the left; she commands seven squares of the queen's file, a diagonal to the left of three white squares, and a diagonal to the right of four white squares. You can therefore already form an idea of the great value of this the most powerful piece at chess.

The knight is the most remarkable of all the pieces; it is the only one that has the privilege of moving over the other pieces, and this it often does, under the guidance of a good player, in a remarkable manner, threading its way safely through its own and the enemy's ranks until it can form an attack on some distinguished piece, or mar an ingenious plot of the adversary. This piece is not only difficult to play well, but difficult also to resist, so that it is a deserved favourite among skilful players. The move of the knight consists of the shortest rook's move and the shortest bishop's move, both at once. For example, place your king's knight at home; he can move to K. R. 3rd square, *i. e.*, from K. Kt. square to K. Kt. 2nd, the shortest rook's move, and from K. Kt. 2nd to K. R. 3rd, the shortest bishop's move, or from K. Kt. square to K. R. 2nd, the shortest bishop's move, and from thence to K. R. 3rd, the shortest rook's move. Wherever we can combine the shortest move of the rook with the shortest move of the bishop, the knight can be played, provided the square to which you wish to play him be not occupied by one of your own pieces or pawns. But if such square be occupied by a piece or pawn of your adversary, the knight can capture it. When your K. Kt. is at home, he can be played to your K. 2nd square, or to K. B. 3rd square, or to K. R. 3rd square; but when the knight gets to the middle of the board his power is wonderfully increased. Place him on your K. 4th, for example, and you will find that he can be played to any one of eight squares. See if you can find out these squares, and write down their names correctly.

Should you find any difficulty in remembering the knight's move, the following exercise will fix it in your memory. It is one of those numerous solutions of the problem which requires the knight to be played to the sixty-four squares of the chess board in sixty-four leaps, without twice touching any one square†.



* The reader will find the history of this problem, together with an easy method of solving it, and several remarkable details respecting the knight's move, in two articles in the *Saturday Magazine*, Vol. XIX. pp. 204 and 228.

* See *Saturday Magazine*, Vol. XIX., pp. 165, 191.

The problem to which the annexed diagram is the solution is as follows:—*Begin the tour of the knight on king's bishop's square, and end on Q. R. square.*

The pawns have the shortest move forward of the rook when they do not capture, and the shortest move forward of the bishop when they do. But each Pawn is allowed to move either one or two steps forward at its first move, after which it can only move one step. Your rooks' pawns command only one square each, viz., K, or Q. Kt. third; the other six pawns command each two squares. Remember that all the *pieces* can be played backwards as well as forwards, to the right or to the left; but the *pawn* has a forward move only; it can never retreat from danger like the other pieces, but continues to advance until it reaches your adversary's royal line, when it is entitled to a reward which none of the pieces can claim: it is immediately promoted to the rank of a queen, or a rook, or a bishop, or a knight, as you may desire.

THE BENUAS OF MALACCA.

WE made the land and entered the Straits of Singapore, running along by the coast of Malacca. The richness of the scene extends even to the water's edge, where the bright trees of all descriptions dip their branches in the waves, and the sweet and spicy odours render fragrant the air from the neighbouring shore, whilst in the background runs a line of broken mountains, of which Mount Ophir is the highest in the range.

The colouring of the sky, previously to and during a thunder-storm, is one of the grandest sights in these tropical climes; the cloud comes stealing along the heights, until it bursts over-head, not as in more northern latitudes, but in sheets of flames of different hues, shooting their brilliant and varied lights through the surrounding firmament.

Mount Ophir, from its name and gold-mines, excites a degree of interest in the traveller: in shape it resembles Mount Vesuvius, and for many miles at its base stretches a tract of forest, inhabited by wild beasts, and men even more savage than the animals themselves. The town of Malacca stands upon a point of land projecting at the end of a bay, and from its situation and buildings forms a picturesque object from the sea.

The mines in the mountains have at a distant period been worked upon a much larger scale than at present, the only people who now follow the trade being a few Chinese and Portuguese, upon whom the chiefs of the tribes levy a species of blackmail in return for the protection they afford. However, these chiefs are not able to defend them from the tribes that infest the jungle districts, which they have to traverse, in order to bring their hard-earned gold to the coast; and many are murdered on their journey, and hundreds robbed, so that the traffic is one of great danger and uncertainty. If the stories related by residents of the habits and customs of this nation be even founded on fact, the tales of the wild men of the woods are scarcely exaggerated.

A description of their habits, given me by a gentleman who was for a long time a resident in the country, and a traveller amongst the people, is so extraordinary as almost to exceed belief, but as it has since been repeated by others, whose authority is likewise undoubted, I may venture to record it.

One of the tribes that infest the jungle, and are supposed to be the aborigines of the country, are the Benuas. They seldom come down to the more civilised parts of the continent, unless caught and forcibly detained. Their stature is rarely above four feet four; and when the children reach the age of manhood, they destroy their parents, to make way for their own generation; and the skulls of their deceased parents are the only tokens that they keep to remind them of the authors of their being, and their unnatural fate. So far I believe there is truth in the stories: and as the larger species of monkeys are found in the country, although not the orang-outang of Borneo, it has given rise to the many absurd tales that the invention or credulity of travellers has thrust upon the public.—LORD JOCELYN'S *Campaign in China*.

FELICITY shows the ground where Industry builds a fortune.—SIR H. WOTTON

CORAL REEFS.

Few natural objects are so well calculated to excite wonder in the human mind as the coral constructions, in all their Protean forms, that surround the greater number of Polynesian islands, and which demonstrate so perfectly the power of nature to effect her vast designs through apparently feeble and inefficient agents. It requires, indeed, an intimate acquaintance with the habits of the lithophytes, and ocular proof of their labours, to credit what stupendous submarine reefs, and islands many miles in compass, are indebted for at least their entire visible structure, to the secretory economy of these tiny architects.

In such examples *Raiatea* is not deficient. On the contrary, she is indebted for a large share of her natural beauties, as well as commercial advantages, to the coral fabrics which surround her shores. These chiefly obtain in the form of reefs; of which the nature and use may be best understood by considering them under their natural divisions of a *barrier* and a *shore reef*. The former encircles the island as a break-water or sea-wall, at the distance of one and a half or two miles from the land; presenting a precipitous face to the ocean, to receive the assault of its billows, but encroaching in a superficial and capricious manner upon the lagoon water it incloses. The shore-reef is continuous with the land around the entire coast, and stretches into the sea to a variable, but usually to a very considerable distance. Its greater portion is covered with shallow water, which in many parts does not exceed, and is often less than, a foot in depth; its outer margin shelves irregularly, and terminates abruptly in a deep channel of blue water. This channel (which is also continued round the island) furnishes a natural division between the two principal reefs, as well as a convenient passage for navigation. Coral islets, shoals, or whatever other form the madreporic rock may assume, can be distinctly traced to one or the other of these apparently distinct reefs, but never occur as the productions of both conjointly.

The outer or *barrier reef* resembles a wall no less in its structure than in office: unlike the friable and arborescent material we commonly associate with the name of coral, the rock of which it is composed is hard, compact, and amorphous, bearing much resemblance to a very firm cement; and it is only on its shoals, extending towards the land, that we notice the elegant form of the tree-coral, contrasting so strongly with the rocky and unornamental structure on which it is planted, as to justify a doubt if both are constructed by the same animals. The summit of this reef is flat, several yards in breadth, but little raised above the level of the sea, and washed by a heavy surf, which breaks against its sea-aspect, courses over its level surface, and falls gently, and as it were by a line of cascades, into the placid basin on the opposite side. At ebb tide, when the surf is less in amount, this reef is partly dry and accessible; but when the tide is high, or the weather tempestuous, the sea, raised into lofty and magnificent arches, beats over the rocky barrier with terrific grandeur, and with a rolling or thundering sound, which may be heard, on a tranquil night, at the distance of several miles. To persons unaccustomed to such scenes, nothing is more deeply and agreeably impressive than the view of a majestic surf thus lashing the coast of an island opposed to the play of a mighty ocean, although it is incomprehensible or revolting to a sailor to hear beauty associated with a scene which only conveys to his mind anxious and unpleasant reflections.

A curious and mysterious feature in the construction of the barrier reef is presented in the occasional apertures that exist in its fabric, and which are of sufficient breadth and depth of water to permit ships to sail through them with facility:

The *shore reef* is chiefly composed of amorphous rock, or block-coral, though tree-coral is also abundant upon it, as well as extensive beds of sand. In many parts, where the water is deep, it presents a submarine picture of extreme beauty: extensive coral groves, planted in beds of smooth and white sand, and mingling hues of pink, blue, white, and yellow, appear through the transparent sea; numerous small fish, of brilliant colours, glide over the sands, thread the labyrinths of the coral branches, or, when alarmed, dart rapidly for shelter into the recesses of the stony thickets; the whole affording a peculiarly pleasing and almost kaleidoscopic effect.

—BENNETT'S *Whaling Voyage round the World*.

WHILE men have various passions, feelings, tastes,
'Tis clear they will not, cannot, think the same,
Who therefore would please all, his time but wastes;
Who firmly does his duty has least blame.

SPARE MINUTES.

MEDITATED RESOLVES AND RESOLVED MEDITATIONS.

THE speech of the tongue is best known to men; God best understands the language of the heart. The heart without the tongue may pierce the ears of heaven, the tongue without the heart speaks an unknown language. No marvel then, if the desires of the poor are heard, when the prayers of the wicked are unregarded. I had rather speak three words in a speech that God knows, than pray three hours in a language that He understands not.

MEDITATION is the womb of our actions, action the midwife of our meditations. A good and perfect conception, if it want strength for the birth, perisheth in the womb of the mind, and, if it may be said to be born, it must be said to be still-born. A bad and imperfect conception, if it hath the happiness of a birth, yet the mind is but delivered of a burthen of imperfections, in the perfection of deformity, which may beg with the cripple at the gate of the Temple, or perish through its imperfections. If I meditate what is good to be done, and do not the good I have meditated, I lose my labour, and make cursed my knowledge. If I do the thing that is good, and intend not that good that I do, it is a good action, but not well done. Others may enjoy some benefit, I deserve no commendations. Resolution without action is a slothful folly, action without resolution is a foolish rashness. First, know what's good to be done, then do that good being known. If forecast be not better than labour, labour is not good without forecast; I would not have my actions done without knowledge nor against it.

It is the folly of affection not to reprehend my erring friend, for fear of his anger; it is the abstract of folly, to be angry with my friend for my error's reprehension. I were not a friend, if I should see my friend out of the way, and not advise him: I were unworthy to have a friend, if he should advise me (being out of the way) and I be angry with him. Rather let me have my friend's anger than deserve it: rather let the righteous smite me friendly by reproof, than the precious oil of flattery or connivance break my head. It is a folly to fly ill-will, by giving a just cause of hatred. I think him a truer friend that deserves my love than he that desires it.

HEALTH may be enjoyed; sickness must be endured: one body is the object of both, one God the Author of both. If then He give me health, I will thankfully enjoy it, and not think it too good, since it is his mercy that bestows it: if He send sickness, I will patiently endure it, and not think it too great, since it is my sin that deserves it. If in health, I will strive to preserve it by praising of Him: if in sickness, I will strive to remove it by praying to Him. He shall be my God in sickness and in health, and my trust shall be in Him in health and in sickness. So in my health I shall not need to fear sickness, nor in my sickness despair of health.

[ARTHUR WARWICK. 1637.]

Now go and brag of thy present happiness, whosoever thou art; brag of thy temperature, of thy good parts; insult, triumph, and boast: thou seest in what a brittle state thou art, how soon thou mayst be dejected, how many several ways, by bad diet, bad air, a small loss, a little sorrow or discontent, an ague, &c., how many sudden accidents may procure thy ruin, what a small tenure of happiness thou hast in this life, how weak and silly a creature thou art. *Humble thyself therefore under the mighty hand of God, know thyself, acknowledge thy present misery, and make right use of it. Let him that standeth take heed lest he fall.* Thou dost now flourish, and hast goods of body, mind, and fortune; but thou knowest not what storms and tempests the evening may bring with it. Be not secure then; be sober and watch, if fortunate and rich; if sick and poor, moderate thyself—I have said.—BURTON'S *Anatomy of Melancholy*.

CLOUDS of affection from our younger eyes,
Conceal that emptiness which age describes;
The soul's dark cottage, battered and decayed,
Lets in new light, through chinks which time has made.

Stronger by weakness wiser men become,
As they draw near to their eternal home;
Leaving the old, both worlds at once they view,
That stand upon the threshold of the new.—WALLER.

APSLEY HOUSE,

THE TOWN RESIDENCE OF THE DUKE OF WELLINGTON.*

THERE is no nation in the world of which the nobles and wealthier gentry inhabit mansions, both in town and country, within and around which all the elements of substantial comfort and useful elegance and true taste more perfectly abound than in England. In foreign countries you may find palaces, of which the exteriors offer far more elaborate ornament—and this remark applies especially to the Italian capitals, where, by the bye, such palaces are falling fast into decay. But in point of solid convenience—not unmixed, here and there, with exquisite specimens of architectural skill—commend us to the town and country-houses of our own aristocracy. A bare enumeration of the more distinguished of the former of these would recal to the remembrance of our London readers, visions of surpassing grandeur. But, as we write for the benefit of that larger circle of our friends to whom the scenes of fashionable life may not be quite so familiar, we think it best to treat this most interesting subject in detail.

The first mansion of note and character which attracts the attention of the stranger who may begin his survey of London from the west, is Apsley House—the town residence of him whom all England, and, indeed, the civilized world, delights to honour, the greatest man of his age; the most illustrious name in English history. Planted upon the edge of Hyde Park, so as to connect itself, in some sort, with the triumphal arch by which the park is entered, Apsley House bears testimony both within and without, to the admirable taste, as well as the sound architectural judgment of its illustrious owner. For, unless our memory be at fault, the Duke of Wellington may fairly lay claim to the distinction of having, to a great extent, planned his own noble palace; and the matchless comfort that prevails within, not less than the classic elegance which distinguishes the exterior of the pile, prove that had not fortune made him a great commander and a great statesman, he might have become, with very little study, a great architect.

Apsley House is separated from Piccadilly by a range of lofty bronze gates, which rest upon pillars of fine stone, of the simplest Corinthian order. These gates—three in number; though the outer one is seldom, we believe, opened, are all solid, the fluted pillars, or bars of each, being embayed in a shield of metal, and ending in chapiters of curious workmanship, such as give to the whole an air both of solidity and lightness. Towards the park there is a plain iron railing, within which a hedge of evergreens is planted; while from Hyde Park gardens the Duke's little domain is separated by an unostentatious wooden fence. Thus the princely palace stands—completely embedded within its own inclosure; inasmuch, that, except by the few persons who may linger among the shrubberies that skirt the lawn in the rear, nothing of what passes in or around the mansion can, without a rude effort, be observed.

Having rung the bell, and had one of the gates rolled back, by a fine hale old soldier, whom his Grace has promoted to the situation of porter, you enter a narrow court-yard, paved, not with flags, but with common paving-stones. You obtain, at the same time, a perfect view of the whole front of the mansion—the simple elegance of which agrees well with your ideas of the habits and character of its owner. Opposite to you is the main entrance—a fine door-way, surmounted by a plain, but broad screen, which rests upon arches, and is itself the foundation from which the elegant portico that is visible from Piccadilly springs. This latter is of the Doric order, or rather of that composite style which unites the simplicity of the Doric with the lightness of the Ionic. You approach the great door by a flight of broad and low steps, and passing under the portal find yourself in a hall, of which you are not tempted to say more than that it is extremely comfortable, being square, not over large, and carpeted over its inarble flooring. To the right of this again, is the waiting room, a commodious enough apartment; yet perfectly plain, from which, as well as by passing through a swing door in front, you are introduced into the suite of rooms that occupy the rest of the ground-floor.

The rooms in question are not more than three in number. That in the centre is usually occupied by his Grace's private secretary. That on the right, is the Duke's own room: that on the left, the state dining-room. The Duke's room is, according to his usual practice in such matters, by far the most unpretending of the whole. In point of size it is, doubtless, larger than his secretary's room; but its principal

* From the *John Bull*.

ornaments are a bookcase at one extremity, and piles of boxes everywhere else, carefully docketed, and made upon a principle of which the Duke is the author. In each of these are stowed away a whole year's worth of letters, as well those received, as copies of all that have been despatched. His table is a large one, which folds up in the middle, and besides the usual garnishing of drawers which belong to things of the sort, is provided with a sliding cover, on drawing down which over his papers he is enabled, by means of a spring lock, to render all secure in a moment. There are, besides, two or three plain tables in the room, with chairs, sofas, and other pieces of necessary ornament, and over the chimney-piece is a likeness of Napoleon. In other respects, however, all is plain and without pretension. The carpet is, in pattern, the same that you find throughout the house. The window curtains correspond with those in the rooms beyond, and the look-out is upon the lawn behind, where his Grace is accustomed at times to take snatches of exercise. Of course the Duke's room has its own outlet, as well as a direct communication with that in which his secretary sits; and the good-humoured, yet sharp tone in which the word "Algy" is often heard in the latter, proves that the double doors, that divide them are yet pervious to the human voice when rightly pitched.

In the secretary's room the objects most conspicuous are the china vases, elaborately painted and gilded, which were presented to the Duke at the close of the war, by the late king of Prussia. They are very beautiful things, and are seen to great advantage through the glass cases, which occupy one side of this apartment. In other respects the room is simple enough. Indeed, from its position as well as size, it would appear to have been originally intended as a sort of ante-room or hall, for there is a communication from it to the dining-room, by which, indeed, as often as the latter is used, the guests make their way to the festive board. A plain library table, an adequate supply of chintz-covered chairs, a proportion of boxes docketed like those in the Duke's sanctum, and green silk hangings, make up the sum of its furniture. Like every other apartment in the house, it is warm and comfortable. Its grate is of polished steel, its chimney-piece of fine white marble.

Of the large dining-room, which is never used except on occasions of more than ordinary state, a brief description is all that seems necessary to be given. Like the dining-rooms of our aristocracy in general, it is laid out more for comfort than show. To be sure, the profusion of foreign china—gifts from crowned heads, which, like that in the secretary's room, fills the glazed mahogany cases with which the walls are set round—offers an endless variety of objects that demand and secure attention. But were these removed, the stranger would come only to this conclusion, that the Duke's dining-room was of spacious dimensions, and every way fitted for the exercise of a princely hospitality. We cannot undertake to say what are the precise dimensions of this noble hall, but we do not think that we overrate its capacity when we say that eighty persons might dine in it without the smallest crowding or inconvenience.

Having thus taken a survey of the basement story, we pass to the grand staircase, of which we are bound to observe that, in its position rather than its construction, it exhibits the only glaring error that is observable in the construction of the house. It is quite obscured and hidden at its base. You do not know that you are approaching it till you open a door, either from the waiting-room or the Duke's own room, and then you come suddenly upon it. It resembles, in fact, the shaft of a well—you stand at the bottom and are surprised to see that a spiral and elegant staircase is twisting over you. Yet there stands Canova's colossal statue of Napoleon—a piece of art which is, we suspect, without a rival in England, and we may venture to add, laying one or two statues aside, unsurpassed throughout the world. What a noble figure it is—how lifelike, how well-nigh divine! Had it belonged to Athenians in the days of yore, that imaginative people would have built a temple for its reception, and paid to it the same honours that they paid to Minerva herself.

We now ascend the light and elegant staircase, by which we are conducted to a corridor, whence, all round the area of the mansion, branch off a suite of rooms, which have scarcely any parallel in London. These, opening one into the other, are the smaller dining-room, the ball-room, the drawing-room, and the picture-gallery, all of them furnished with admirable taste, in a manner perfectly uniform, and gilded and ornamented to a degree which dazzles, without oppressing the spectator. The drapery in these apartments

is all of yellow silk, done up with rich gold tassels. The Brussels carpets are of a small and tasteful pattern; the couches, chairs, sofas, and ottomans correspond with the hangings, and the walls and ceiling, in spite of their elaborate gilding, are so coloured as to set off to the greatest advantage the masterpieces of painting which constitute the principal ornament of Apsley House. Nor can we undertake, within the limits that are at our command, to speak of these. You have four or five Murillos, of first-rate value. You have Rubenses, Correggios, a Titian or two, Annibal Carracci, Salvator Rosa, Vandyke, Wouvermans, and, in short all the great masters of the Italian, Spanish, Dutch, and Flemish schools, mixed up with the most exquisite productions of the pencil, both in France and in England; for, side by side with the most renowned of the olden names, you trace those of our own Sir Joshua, of Lawrence, and of Landseer; while David has contributed more than one gem to this collection, which, though not the largest, is perhaps the most faultless that is to be found in any private house in Great Britain. But, one circumstance will, we are sure, strike the visitor as not more remarkable than it is in good taste—portraits of Napoleon are multiplied everywhere, inasmuch, that while Emperors of Russia and of Austria, Kings of Prussia, France, and even England, greet you by units, or, at the most, by pairs, you find yourself confronted in different parts of the house by six Napoleons at the least.

It is not worth while, would our space permit, to describe the less conspicuous portions of this noble mansion. There are suites of rooms everywhere—one of which used to be occupied by the Marquis of Douro previous to his marriage, while another is described as Lord Charles's rooms. They are, like the lodging apartments in general, comfortably but plainly fitted up. Neither have the domestics a right to complain that their convenience has in any particular been neglected. But the Duke's own room is here, as it is elsewhere, a mere tent. The bed is the same which he used to occupy when in the field, and all things are plain—we had almost said austere—around it. His Grace prefers, and we think wisely, the German quilt to our English blankets. He sleeps without curtains, and can scarcely, we should think, turn round in his narrow bed. Indeed we have heard that his language in reference to that matter is, that "when a man thinks of turning, it is time he were up." His habits, too, are all early, and temperate—yet does he not try his constitution too much? We wish that he would give that magnificent mind more rest, and eat more frequently than he does.

We must not conclude this hasty notice of Apsley House without alluding to the stables. They are all under ground; and as the entrance is by a sort of sloping shaft, which opens upon Piccadilly, so is light admitted by means of small barred windows, that are little, if at all, raised above the level of the garden behind.

Finally, we may observe of the general bearing of the mansion, that there is an air of quiet elegance about it, which would satisfy the spectator, were he even ignorant of the name of the owner, that it belonged to no common man. The roof is flat. The windows are of an order to correspond with the Grecian portico that adorns the front. The material of which it is built is the richest Caen stone; and it has retained its hue so well for a quarter of a century that we see no reason to distrust its continuing to do so for at least a century to come. Nay, the iron blinds themselves, which the madness of an abused people compelled the Duke to put up, have been, in his hands, rendered, if not ornamental, certainly the reverse of disfiguring. We are told that when the conversation happens to turn from them to the events that caused them to be placed where they now hang, the Duke only laughs. "They shall stay where they are," is his remark, "as a monument of the gullibility of a mob, and the worthlessness of that sort of popularity for which they who give it can assign no good reason. I don't blame the men that broke my windows. They only did what they were instigated to do, by others who ought to have known better. But if any one be disposed to grow giddy with popular applause, I think that a glance towards these iron shutters will soon sober him."

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